Open Access
J. Sustain. Econ. Dev., 2025, 3(2):117-129
ISSN (Online): 3005 -2513; ISSN (Print):3005-2505
DOI: https://doi.org/10.22194/JSD/25.1055
https://societyfia.org/journal/JSD

Socioeconomic Analysis of Households Child Labor: Exploring the Dynamics in Punjab, Pakistan

Saria Jabeen*, Asghar Ali, Muhammad Khalid Bashir and Tahira Sadaf

Institute of Agricultural & Resource Economics, University of Agriculture, Faisalabad Pakistan
*Corresponding author's email: saria.jabeen@hotmail.com

Children are often compelled to work, when their families encounter financial difficulties caused by poverty, illness, or job loss. Approximately 152 million children, with 64 million girls and 88 million boys, are estimated to be engaged in child labor worldwide, representing almost one in ten of all children globally. Child Labor in domestic work persists as and remains a critical global challenge that strips millions of children of their rights and future. This issue's socio-economic drivers in specific regional contexts of district Faisalabad, Pakistan, remain underexplored, despite such wide-ranging research. This study explores the complex web of factors that are fueling child labor in Punjab's domestic sector. A purposive sampling technique was used for collecting primary data from 105 respondents. The targeted respondents included child laborers, their parents and employers. The findings revealed that child labor has become societal phenomenon other than the poverty, minimal parental education, and employer exploitation chronically cycle within, and sustain, this practice. A multi-level approach involving federal, provincial and district government is necessary for effective addressing child labor. Through targeted interventions, financial support, strict enforcement of laws and community participation, a sustainable reduction in child labor can be achieved.

Keywords: Child labor, domestic sector, poverty, mixed method, development goals, UNICEF, ILO.

INTRODUCTION

The progress of any nation is intrinsically linked to the well-being and development of its children and youth (Zafar et al., 2016). The state can only move forward if the young generation is well-educated and wise. Children are frequently employed for cash and without benefits in non-harmful jobs all around the world. Child labor is a common problem globally that global curse extents across both agriculture and manufacturing, along with domestic services industries. Child labor is defined, by the International Labor Organization (ILO), as being work that truly harms the mental or physical growth of children (Nesi et al., 2016). Accordance to the UNICEF child labor is referred to the "Child" as anyone below the age of 18, and "Child Labor" as some type of work performed by children below age 18. Three major international accords serve as appropriate guidelines for the worst types of child labor: These include the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, the International Labor Organization (Nesi et al., 2016) Convention No. 138 concerning minimum age for admission to employment and Recommendation No. 146 (1973), and the ILO Convention No. 182 concerning the prohibition and immediate action for the elimination of the worst forms of child labor and Recommendation No. 190 (1999). These agreements define child labor and serve as the foundation for child labor laws implemented by signatory nations (UNCRC) (Islam, 2017). Domestic work is particularly deceptive, often hidden behind closed doors. It completely isolates certain children away from education and also abuses those children. Due to enforcement lags, families get driven to sacrifice their children's future for survival by extreme poverty (Sharma, 2016). A comprehension of regional variations is staged through this global picture.

South Asia does bear such a large burden of child labor. Over 41 million children aged 5-14 work in hazardous conditions. UNICEF reports that this accounts for around 12% of the region's total youth (UNICEF, 2023). This type of crisis is a battle for countries such as India, Bangladesh and Pakistan. Poverty, social norms and the job market of weak character for adults fuel the problem (Ahad et al., 2021). Here domestic work is in a major sector, specifically young girls become extinct as truly invisible workers at home (UNICEF, 2022). Certain children are exploited by certain brick kilns garment

Jabeen, S., Ali, A., Bashir, M.K., & Sadaf, T. (2025). Socioeconomic Analysis of Households Child Labor: Exploring the Dynamics in Punjab, Pakistan. *Journal of Sustainable and Economic Development,3(2),* 117-129.
[Received 20 Mar 2025; Accepted 10 Sep 2025; Published 10 Dec 2025]
Attribution 4.0 International (CC BY 4.0)

factories as well as at the farms. Their vulnerability deepens along with inequality tied to gender, caste, and class (Abdullah et al., 2023). Progress has only declined by a third since 2000 (Ryder, 2019). Localized solutions are now demanded, but South Asia's story mirrors all global trends. Poverty is a global problem that impacts developing nations everywhere. One of the South Asian nations where millions of people live in great poverty is Pakistan, which is said to be the primary cause of child labor (Abdullah et al., 2023). Pakistan ranks as being among the top ten of nations when it comes to child labor. The curse of child labor affects around 12.5 million children in Pakistan, primarily because of the country's terrible economic circumstances (Jaffar, 2021). According to the sustainable development goals (SDGs, para 8 clause 8.7) target to end child labour in all its form by 2025. Since 2016, the goal has not been met ten years before this deadline (Thévenon & Edmonds, 2019). Poverty and child labor are strongly correlated (Anderson & Jiang, 2018) and it can also be caused by several things, such as low socioeconomic level, parents' lack of education. There are two types of child work that are recognized: children involved in labor and children working in industries (Latif et al., 2018). The Human Rights Commision reported, the main causes of child labor in Pakistan are social attitudes, poverty, large families, and poor literacy rates. it also reported that one million children in Pakistan are only employed as domestic helpers and are subject to physical and sexual abuse. Child labor is a serious issue of inhumanity, and the country's labor regulations do not adequately address this inhumanity (Ray, 2000). Punjab is home to the majority of these children (58.6%), with the remaining youngsters being spread among the other Pakistani provinces. Moreover, in rural areas child labor is eight times more prevalent than in urban areas. Domestic work is often unpaid or else poorly compensated through various means, including low cash wages, food, clothing, shelter. In some cases, they might also receive a combination of these forms of compensation which is common too (Latif et al., 2018). This same luck often ties many families to some debt bondage (LeBaron, 2014). Laws do exist, but authorities do weakly enforce those laws (Ray, 2000) and the crises of Covid-19 pandemic worsened matters and even more children were pushed into work (UNICEF, 2021). The issue is additionally increased in Faisalabad, Punjab's textile-rich city, alongside economic demands. Urgent attention of sorts is needed for Punjab's children in quantity. This study provides a comprehensive situation analysis of child labor within Faisalabad's domestic sector, a pressing yet underexplored issue in Pakistan's industrial heartland. Grounded in Bronfenbrenner's ecological model, the research dissects the multi-layered socio-economic factors perpetuating this phenomenon across three interconnected systems i.e. micro, meso and macro systems:

1.	Micro systems	Encompassing the immediate environment where children reside, including family dynamics, parental traits (e.g., education, income) and social support structures.
2.	Meso system	Examines the working conditions, employer practices, and daily realities shaping children's lives in domestic work.
3.	Macro system	Addressing the broader policy environment and economic context that sustain child labor in Faisalabad, Punjab's economy hub (Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

The aim is the discovery of certain underlying socio-economic factors in the light of Bronfenbrenner's ecological model.

Child labor is well defined as work that robs children of their adolescence and has a detrimental effect on their development physically, mentally and educationally (Akbar & Hameed, 2019; Ahmed & Ray, 2014; Karim, 2009). Child labor is addressed as a grave destruction of a child's human rights, contingent on the child's age. This includes actions that impede the child's growth, prevent them from obtaining an education, harm their health, and prevent them from moving (Chatterjee, 2015). The issue of hazardous child labor is particularly widespread since it effects from excessive amount of work that seriously impair the physical and mental health of the children and harm their ethical growth and security (Türkelli, 2020; Zdunnek et al., 2008). However, in this study, the term "child labor" refers to people who work long hours for themselves or their families in hazardous jobs such as auto shops, garages, clothing industries, tanneries, or as assistants at car dealerships, tea shops, and restaurants. There is universal agreement that child labor is detrimental to both the child and the nation, that is why, it is mandated that child labor be outlawed (Webbink et al., 2013; Rossi, 2006). Poverty and child labor are strongly correlated (Anderson & Jiang, 2018). Child labor can be caused by a number of things, such as low socioeconomic level, parents' lack of education, or poverty. Hafeez and Hussain (2019) reported that Agriculture, transportation, and manufacturing are the main industries where child labor occurs. A study by Srivastava (2014) found that illiteracy among parents and guardians is one of the several problems and factors linked to child labor. While taking unfair advantage of another person by force, abuse, oppression, or other cruel treatment is referred as "exploitation", on the other hand, "Economic" refers to pecuniary interests that affect the state, community, or family's economy (Van Der Hof et al., 2020; Warren, 2011). The unfair benefit of children's labor for one's own profit or gain includes producing, distributing, and consuming goods and services. This is known as economic exploitation of child labor. However, under-18-year-olds who work in textiles, food service, farms, sex trades, mines, factories and mills, military service, and entertainment are considered to be engaged in

exploitative employment (Chatterjee & Ray, 2019). Common issues resulting from this type of work include the exclusion of these children from important services and developmental resources, such as healthcare and education (Pinzón-Rondón et al., 2018; Huisman & Smits, 2015). Children are inexpensive and simple to exploit, thus employers, especially those running unofficial businesses, prefer to hire them for long hours and unfavorable working circumstances since they lack the courage to object. (Norpoth et al., 2014).

Quattri and Watkins (2019) explored that the children between the ages of six and fourteen work full-time jobs, putting in up to 100 to 110 hours a week for income that is less than $2 per day. Usually, employers push employees to stay on the job by paying their salaries too late or in arrears (Murray et al., 2019). For this study, children who are typically engaged in physically demanding work and who appear to receive a standard salary for their labor were selected. It was considered exploitative to use children for labor that involves unfair, harmful, or cruel treatment and compensation that falls short of the minimum national standard. The causes of child labor include the debt of parents, family members' job loss or poor income, the sudden death of the family's wage earner, and loss of livelihood from severe natural disasters, including cyclones, food shortages, floods, droughts, and river erosion, among others. In Bangladesh, males occupy the majority of industrial jobs, while females work in households (Shahen & Alam, 2020). As a result, young domestic workers mostly girls are subjected to sexual and physical misuse at home (Shahen & Alam, 2020; Islam et al., 2014). Nonetheless, child laborers are routinely subjected to inhumane or violent abuse by their employers for any infraction at work, including shattering dishes or glasses at home (for household workers) or in restaurants or hotels. They are rarely permitted to receive medication or medical benefits (Akbar & Hameed, 2019). They hardly ever have free time while they are working (Islam et al., 2014) and the extended and demanding work hours harm their physical and mental well-being (Mahmod et al., 2016; Zaman et al., 2014). Different aspects of the economic exploitation and deprivation of Child Laborers in India, as well as in Angola, were demonstrated by Kim et al. (2020), Das and Mukherjee (2011), Pinilla-Roncancio and Silva (2018). While there is evidence that child labor raises family living standards (Ahmed & Ray, 2014; Smith, 1999), there is also a strong theoretical and empirical correlation between economic hardships and the risks and shocks that children face when selling their labor (IPECL, 2013).

Sajid and Ahmad, (2018) considered a situation involving three forces, which is necessary or production: capital and adult labor, and child labor, and as well as two sectors: formal and informal. The informal sector also uses both adult and child labour keep aside from capital,. The only labor used in the formal sector is adult labor combined with capital. The formal sector pays more than the unofficial sector does. Because adult workers in the informal sector make less money, they are forced to send their children to work. Because there are well-organized trade unions to negotiate salaries, benefits, and working conditions with employers, it is claimed that in the formal sector earnings are higher.

Dwibedi and Chaudhuri (2010) demonstrated that a decrease in poverty does not always translate into a decrease in the prevalence of child labor by using a general equilibrium based on three sectors framework. However, they contend that by reducing the chances for child labor, economic reforms that bring in capital can have an impact on the prevalence of child labor. There is a wealth of historical literature in Pakistan that examines the supply side factors that contribute to child labor for example, Mahmood et al., (1994), Ranjan (2001), Khan (2003), Bhalotra (2004), Ali (2004), Toor (2005) and Abdul Hai et al., (2010) have discussed the connections between human capital, child labor, and poverty. Bhalotra (2004) has also explored the effect of parents' selfless actions on child labor; Iram and Fatima (2008) investigated the connections between trade liberalization, foreign direct investment, and child labor; Hou (2010) investigated the relationship between wealth, education and child labor. The following are some of the very few articles that examine demand side factors: Ghayur (1996); Hussain (1997); Bhalotra (2004); Bhalotra and Heady (2003). In a world where advancement stagnates, it is a call to action. Pakistan can align itself with global development goals, as policymakers can safeguard the rights of children via addressing these root causes. This study provides a view into lives that are too frequently overlooked by fusing data with personal narratives. Since few of the studies target the domestic workforce, the research fills such gap. Specific actions are most urgently needed in the light of these understandings to eradicate the child labor in Pakistan. Policies that safeguard children can be shaped by an awareness of these relationships. The knowledge gap is exacerbated by the variety of domestic tasks, workplace conditions and pay scales differ not only between cities but even within a single city and neighborhood. Many governments and society do not view the female youngsters employed in domestic work as "child labor," but rather as a typical aspect of society. The need to understand why and in what ways domestic service constitutes child labour and can be a worst form of child labour requires in-depth study to analyze the main dynamic of child domestic sector.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The study adopted a holistic approach for understanding the dynamics of child labour in the environmental context workplace, society, and family rather than focusing solely on child labor (Khan & Shezadi, 2021). Female child laborers are generally invisible, hard to locate and challenging to count. Due to the sensitive nature of the study, a purposive sampling approach was espoused to target business owners who employ

children as laborers for domestic work. The data were collected through structured surveys directed at the employers' residences, providing firsthand perceptions into the primary factors influencing child labor practices. Before the conduction of the interview, it had also been briefed the respondents that their responses would remain anonymous and confidential. Bronfenbrenner's ecological model served as the guiding framework for conducting the interviews.

The data were gathered from the district Faisalabad, Punjab-Pakistan that is famous for the textile industry and has a lot of opportunities for employment. For this purpose, a semi-structured questionnaire was developed and pilot-tested to make modifications based on variations in situations across the selection of respondents. Following the necessary modifications, the final version of the questionnaire was crafted. The questionnaire was divided into three sections first one is related to the main respondent (child laborer), which covered child characteristics consisting of age, education, birth order, contribution to family income, working hours, living conditions, reasons of leaving school, and work experience. The second section has questions regarding parents' occupation, education, housing, food security, physical fitness, drug addiction and per-month income, family income per month, family size, occupational family structure, sibling education, sibling disability and the number of children involved in labor. The third section inquired about the employer's behavior with the child laborer, which had questions about working conditions i.e. total working hours per day, availability of basic facilities, duration of leave or break, type of punishment, different types of injuries and knowledge about national laws and order.

For the accumulation of these above-mentioned sections, in-person depth interviews were conducted with 105 respondents at their workplace and contacted to their parents through video call on WhatsApp and also visited their homes personally where it was possible. Children in this study have been defined as those between 5-15 years of age, a definition put forward by the ILO and UNICEF (Khakshour et al., 2015).

***Descriptive statistics*:** Descriptive statistics like mean, frequency and percentages were used to capture socio-economic and demographic characteristics of the respondents by using following formulas.

$$\text{Percentage} = \sum \frac{F}{N} \qquad (1)$$

Weighed Mean

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n}(x_i * w_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i} \qquad (2)$$

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The results are structured around the study's objectives, which aimed to explore and analyze the dynamics of child labor in domestic sector employment. The findings are based on a comprehensive analysis of primary data, including survey data, statistical records, and existing literature on the topic.

Table 1. Quantitative socioeconomic characteristic (Continuous Variables).

Variables	Min	Max	Mean	S.D
Age of Child (Years)	6	17	12.9	2.62
Number of children in a family	2	10	5.34	1.92
Birth order of the child	1	9	3.05	1.70

This study describes the age distribution of working children and shows that nearly half (49.5%) were aged 14 years or older, while 30.5% were between 11 and 13 years, and 20% were aged 10 years or below. Older children are more likely to be involved in labor, potentially due to physical capabilities or cultural norms around work readiness. Economic contributions by children usually supersede education, especially in poorer settings, as they approach adulthood (Edmonds, 2005). This is like Benson and Owens (2022), who emphasize that South Asia's extreme poverty forces early entry into labor markets, denying children foundational learning years critical for cognitive and social development.

The number of children in a family was very closely related to child labor. Families of 4-5 children comprised the most significant percentage of working children at 45.7%, and those between 6 and 7 comprised 26.7%. Only 14.3 per cent of all families had fewer than three children. This indicates that more children increase their reliance on child labor, given the extra income needed. Larger family size was associated with increased percentages of child labor, with 45.7% of families having children between 4 and 5. Khan and Shahzadi (2021) support this finding by arguing that additional children are more economic assets in resource-constrained households, providing labor to meet the household's needs. Similar findings were observed in other works in South Asia, representing rural areas of the region, where child labor was more prevalent in larger families due to higher economic burdens and lower alternatives for using the resources available for education (Ray, 2000).

Birth order among siblings was found to determine their employment status. The highest percentage of working children is third-born, at 23.8%, followed by first-borns, at 22.9%. Fourth-born children registered 20%. A child whose birth order was fifth birth and above registered an employment of 15.2%. It implies that older siblings may bear additional economic responsibility in numerous families. The study shows that birth order has much to say regarding the likelihood of a child working. It bodes well with Emerson and Souza (2008) who explored that in families with more children, a more significant economic responsibility usually falls on the shoulders of older siblings

Table 2. Qualitative socioeconomic characteristics of child (Categorical Variables).

Variables	Frequency	Percentage
Gender of the child:		
Male	9	8.6
Female	96	91.4
Region/Location		
Urban	32	30.4
Rural	73	69.6
Education Status		
Currently enrolled in school	7	6.7
Dropped out of school	48	45.7
Never attended school	50	47.6
Family income level (PKRs/month)		
PKR 10,000 - 20,000	28	26.6
PKR 20,000 - 50,000,	67	63.8
Above PKR 50,000	10	9.6
Daily working hours of child laborer		
Less than 4 hours	10	9.6
4-8 hours	47	44.8
8-12 hours	41	39
More than 12 hours	7	6.6
Type of work		
Cooking	10	9.59
Cleaning	49	46.7
Babysitting	19	18.1
Laundry	27	25.7
Child working for a relative or an unrelated family		
Relative	13	12.4
Unrelated Family	92	87.6
Per month salary		
PKR 1,000 - 5,000,	24	22.8
PKR 5,000 - 10,000	59	56.3
More than PKR 10,000	22	20.9
Living conditions provided for the child		
Living with the family	55	52.3
Separate living arrangements	12	11.4
Sleep at work site	13	12.5
Returns home after work	25	23.8
Child faced any physical or emotional abuse while working		
Yes	16	15.2
No	89	84.8
Child experienced any health problems due to work		
Yes	6	5.7
No	99	94.3
Child have access to healthcare services		
Yes	86	81.9
No	19	18.1
Safety measures in place during the child's work (e.g., gloves, protective clothing)		
Yes	39	37.1
No	37	35.2
Not Applicable (N/A)	29	27.6
Child attending school along with working		
Yes	14	13.3
No	91	86.7
If not, why did the child leave school		
Family's financial situation	73	69.5
School too far	5	4.76
No interest in studies	9	8.57
Others	18	17.14
Child have time for play or social activities		
Yes	76	72.3
No	29	27.7
Main reason the child is working in domestic labor		
Family poverty	69	65.7
Parent's unemployment	16	15.2
To pay off debt	12	11.4
Other	8	7.7
Child's parents aware of the legal age limits for child labor		
Yes	35	33.3
No	70	66.7
Child's parents feel that child labor is acceptable under certain conditions		
Yes	97	92.3
No	8	7.7
Family pressure for the child to work		
Yes	79	75.2
No	26	24.8
Child or family receive any form of government support or social welfare		
Yes	26	24.76
No	79	75.23

Most child laborers were female (91.4%), with only 8.6% being male, indicating a gender disparity in domestic labor roles. Most of the children (69.6%) come from rural areas, while 30.4% are from urban regions, reflecting the prevalence of child labor in rural settings. The education levels among working children were alarmingly low. Around forty-seven percent of children never attended school, and 45.7% had dropped out. Only 6.7% of the children were in school, indicating that work obligations and economic pressures severely limit education. The contrast between educational enrollment, where 47.6% of children never attended school and 45.7% dropped out, is consistent with the Federation and ILO's findings in 2019, which reported an inverse relationship of high magnitude between educational access and child labor. Indirect costs such as school uniforms and materials and opportunity costs are massive barriers to education in South Asian Countries like Pakistan (Majumdar et al., 2025). Family income distribution fell between PKR 20,000-50,000 at 62.9% and between PKR 10,000-20,000 at 26.7%. Incomes of less than PKR 10,000 were found only in 1% of the families, and 9.5% earned more than PKR 50,000. This indicates that child labor prevails more frequently among low-middle income families since a small amount of money cannot provide sufficient income to care for a family's household without involving the children in raising their income. This observation aligns with Ali et al. (2019), who emphasize that families in the lower-middle income bracket often face a "poverty trap," where even modest gains fail to translate into reduced dependency on child labor. Additionally, Qadoos et al. (2023) note that insufficient

wages in adult-dominated sectors can perpetuate multi-generational labor dependence, emphasizing the need for a comprehensive livelihood program.

The results also show 83.8% of children work between 4 and 12 hours daily. Moreover, 6.7% often do over 12 hours of work. It may result in physical fatigue and psychological strain, leaving little time for education and entertainment. Such is confirmed by the fact that too much work time influences cognitive and physical development in children. Long working hours recorded in 83.8% of children are consistent with Edmonds and Pavcnik (2005), who conclude that economic necessity compels families to demand long work hours from children. Further studies by Song et al. (2022) reveal that such schedules remove children from education opportunities, placing them in poverty and low-skilled labor cycles. The most common type of child labor among working children is household work, much like in the rest of South Asia, where girls' domestic work has been culturally legitimized. Domestic work is still significantly underreported since it remains a hidden phenomenon, according to Tuttle (2021). This makes it very challenging to enforce child labor laws. On the other hand, most of the children work for unrelated families, which agrees with findings from Junker et al. (2021) when they highlighted the fact that employer-employee relationships have more risks of exploitation. Such children have weak legal protection, especially in the informal sector.

Fifty-six percent of children reported earning between PKR 5,000-10,000 per month, and 21% earned over PKR 10,000 per month. Conversely, no child was paid less than PKR 1,000 or worked without pay. These percentages show the market value of children's work as an additional source of income in low-income families. This conclusion is in line with Shahid (2023), who states that children's earnings are predominantly observed to be between PKR 5,000-10,000. The above findings are linked to the reason for engaging children in labor, as families use the income from these children to survive. Thus, policies improving adult wages and social protection are required to reduce reliance on child labor. The proportion of 23.8% of children who live away from their families is a large number, signifying vulnerabilities in work environments, like emotional stress and increased exposure to abuse. As ILO and UNICEF (2021) state that such living arrangements usually isolate children and make it hard to monitor their well-being. Physical or emotional abuse was reported by 16.2% of the children, but no instance was reported by 83.8%. Most children reported no abuse; however, there is a likelihood of underreporting due to fear of retaliation or normalization of mistreatment. Abuse can have lasting emotional and psychological impacts, making it essential to have robust monitoring and child protection mechanisms. These results support Al-Aly (2024) views on how children who engage in this kind of work face higher risks of exploitation without regulatory protection. Abrahamyan et al. (2024) noted that people's acceptance of punitive measures is a common contributory factor to the long existence of abuse in child labor areas. Public sensitization programs and reporting structures, like those in Sri Lanka, might be a significant step toward reducing abuse while creating a safer environment for these children.

Only 5.7% of the children reported having health problems due to work, and 94.3% reported having no health problems. The percentage may be low because people are not aware of the long-term effects of the task or underreport symptoms. Chronic diseases may develop for those constantly exposed to hazardous activities without protective measures, which would not be seen early on. It agrees with Sánchez et al. (2023), who stated that informal laborers often do not have access to healthcare and preventive measures. Tanaka and Arakida (2024) argued that workplace safety and periodic health screenings are important for vulnerable populations. The fact that this study did not report any health issues may be attributed to regular health monitoring revealing hidden or latent problems. Most of the children, 81.9%, had access to healthcare services; no access was reported for 18.1%. Safety measures were present for 37.1% of children, absent for 35.2%, and unclear or non-existent for 27.6%. The lack of safety measures for 35.2% of child workers highlights significant risks, particularly in hazardous tasks. This neglect reflects inadequate employer awareness or enforcement of safety standards, increasing vulnerability to injuries and illnesses. This study validates Vishwakarma (2021), who argued that informal labor sectors usually dismiss workplace safety measures. Zhou (2020) highlighted the requirement for legal compliance that mandates employers to provide safety equipment and train workers in risky environments.

Almost three-fourths (73.3%) of children had time for play or social activities, while 26.7% of children are deprived of play opportunities, demonstrating the limited nature of childhood life for many working children. Social and recreational engagements are vital aspects of emotional growth and well-being, and a lack of these opportunities may cause psychological stress. The conclusion is like Ray (2000), who stated that social development is more important for working children. An integrated recreation education program could help alleviate some damaging effects of lost play opportunities, such as community learning centers. Parents without legal safeguards are less likely to fight for their children's rights or find alternative employment. The results align with Punaks and Lama (2021), who suggested that legal awareness campaigns are essential to reducing child labor. Community-based programs and media initiatives can help fill this knowledge gap and improve compliance. An overwhelming 92.4% of parents found child labor acceptable under certain conditions, while 7.6% disagreed. The high acceptance level of child labor indicates that the perception is deeply entrenched in culture and economic necessity. Changing this would require overcoming financial and social

barriers. Only 24.8 per cent of children or their families reported receiving some form of government or NGO support, leaving 75.2 per cent without any such support. Low coverage of social welfare programs is an indicator of systemic failures to address the underlying causes of child labor. Scale-up of such programs would thus be important for reducing the dependency on child labor for economic benefits. Basu and Tzannatos (2003) have stressed the need for holistic social safety nets. Expanding conditional cash transfers and employment guarantee schemes will significantly reduce the rate of child labor.

Table 3. Qualitative socioeconomic characteristics of child parents (Categorical Variables).

Variables	Frequency	Percentage
Relationship with the child		
Mother	72	68.7
Father	32	30.4
Guardian	0	-
Others	1	0.95
Household's monthly income consistent throughout the year		
Yes, it remains about the same each month	13	12.5
No, it fluctuates slightly but is generally stable	25	23.8
No, it fluctuates significantly (due to seasonal or irregular employment)	43	40.9
No, it is highly unpredictable each month	24	22.8
Educational background of the parents		
No formal education	89	84.7
Primary school	9	8.6
Middle school	1	0.95
High school	6	5.8
University graduate	0	-
Main sources of income for your household		
Employment (self or spouse)	26	24.9
Agricultural work	11	10.4
Small business	3	2.9
Daily wage labor	56	53.3
Other (please specify)	9	8.5
Household income is sufficient to meet basic needs (food, housing, education, etc.)		
Yes	6	5.7
No	99	94.3
Reason behind to allow your child to work		
Family financial pressure	65	62
To help pay off debts	29	27.6
No affordable education options	6	5.7
To gain work experience	3	2.8
Other	2	1.9
Work your child is doing, appropriate for their age		
Yes	98	93.3
No	7	6.7
Child complained about being tired or unable to cope with work and study		
Yes	17	16.1
No	88	83.9
Access to healthcare services for your child		
Yes	101	96.2
No	4	3.8
Child currently attending school		
Yes	10	9.5
No	95	90.5
If, child is not in school, reason		
Cannot afford school fees	47	49.5
School is too far	4	4.2
Child has to work	30	31.6
No interest in education	14	14.7
Other	0	
Awareness of laws about child labor in Pakistan		
Yes	30	28.5
No	75	71.5
Acceptable for children to work in certain circumstances		
Yes	98	93.3
No	7	6.7
Expectations regarding child's future		
To continue working	88	83.8
To pursue higher education	11	10.4
To start a business	0	-
Other	6	5.8
Child to stop working, if financial support from the government or NGOs		
Yes	101	96.2
No	4	3.8
Any pressure from others (family, community, employer) to make your child work		
Yes	14	13.3
No	91	86.7
Child's parents feel that the legal age limits for child labor are enforced in their area		
Yes, they are strictly enforced,	11	10.6
Yes, but enforcement is weak	6	5.7
No, they are not enforced at all,	60	57.1
Unsure	28	26.6
Cultural beliefs in your community support child labor		
Yes, child labor is considered acceptable and normal,	69	65.7
Yes, but only under certain circumstances (e.g., financial need)	17	16.2
No, child labor is discouraged	9	8.5
No, there is strong opposition to child labor in the community	10	9.6

The findings indicate that the mother was the primary respondent in 68.6% of cases, followed by the father at 30.5%. Other guardians were responsible for only 1%, which shows that the immediate family mainly makes decisions on child labor. Mothers were the decision-makers in 68.6% of cases, indicating their central place in managing household responsibilities and child welfare. These findings agree with Gul et al. (2022), who advance that mothers usually make most decisions regarding their children in the patriarchal setup since these are more tactical decisions, especially within

low-income households. Fathers constituted 30.5% of decisions, reflecting cultural norms and economic roles. The mothers (84.8%) had no formal education, followed by 8.6% who had completed primary school. Only 1% attended middle school, and 5.7% reached high school, showing a considerable gap in educational qualification among mothers. The data reflect a tremendous gap in education between mothers, with only 84.8% having had formal schooling of any type. It supports the understanding that maternal education directly affects child welfare, including decisions regarding education and labor. Educated mothers are likely to give more importance to education and advocate for school-going. However, in this regard, the lack of education among mothers continues the cycle of poverty and child labor. Chen et al. (2025) argues that the mother's education is vital in reducing child labor. Educated mothers understand the importance of education, which makes them resistant to being influenced by the idea of sending their children to work (Santana et al., 2019). On the other hand, mothers without education often lack information about other alternatives and remain in child labor cycles. Household income stability was very volatile. Only 12.4% of households reported stable monthly income, while 23.8% experienced slight fluctuations. Sixty-four percent of households reporting income fluctuations as significant also support the trends of Yan et al. (2024), who has underlined the volatility of incomes in informal economies as an important determinant of child labor. Families whose incomes are volatile do not put much emphasis on education since the current income needs come first. Santana et al. (2019) stated that the volatility is brought about by seasonal employment in agriculture, construction and informal trade. Expanding social safety nets, such as employment guarantees or income support programs, stabilize household income and reduce the demand for child labor. The dependence on daily wage labor (53.3%) supports Du et al. (2019) findings, which identified informal and precarious employment as a key driver of child labor. Such jobs often lack social protection, making families vulnerable to economic shocks. Li et al. (2024) similarly noted that unstable-income families are more likely to prioritize short-term survival over long-term educational investments for their children.

The fact that 94.3% of families consider their income insufficient aligns with Tang et al. (2020). Economic deprivation is directly linked to child labor. That's why 93.3% of the view that child labor is appropriate by age shows a cultural acceptance of this phenomenon. Khule and Jena (2021) stated that this is one of the main hurdles in implementation because the family views child labor as a practical requirement rather than a violation of rights. Even though, they do not bother with the complaint which is being launched by the child against tiredness due to work. However, the families of the children value education and considered it was crucial for children's future, but it does not match with the low school attendance rates. Mostly respondents (85.7%) wanted their children to continue working, and only 8.6% hoped they would pursue higher education. The expectation of continued work reflects the deep-rooted economic dependency on child labor. Low aspirations for higher education suggest a lack of awareness or access to educational opportunities. These results agree with Garcia (2015), who observed that poverty influences limited future expectations for children.

Hence, child labor is culturally accepted and about 90.5% of the respondents gain child labor benefits in one way or another, while 9.5% disagreed. The perceived benefits of child labor, such as learning skills or earning income, show practical attitudes in the face of economic necessity, but this ignores the long-term damage to the child's development. The results agree with Ray (2000), who pointed out that perceived short-term gains often outweigh recognition of the long-term disadvantages of child labor. Moreover, child labor was acceptable and normal within their community. This agrees with (Reese et al., 2022), who stated that cultural acceptance of child labor is one of the significant challenges to its elimination. (Balzano, 2022) further adds that child labor is perceived as a means of survival in underdeveloped regions. The awareness campaigns should focus on the broader developmental harms and social costs of child labor.

Table 4. Qualitative socioeconomic characteristics of employer (Categorical Variables).

Variables	Frequency	Percentage
Domestic workers employed, and how many are children (under 18 years of Age)		
1	88	83.8
2-3	16	15.2
4-5	1	1.0
Hiring process of child laborer		
Through an agent	34	32.3
Referred to by family/friend	64	61
Child approached directly	7	6.7
Other	0	-
Days per week does the child work		
6 days a week	21	20
7 days a week	82	78.1
Other	2	1.9
Child get any time off		
0	5	4.8
Yes	88	83.8
No	12	11.4
Any additional support provided by the employer (e.g., clothing, healthcare, education) to the child		
Yes, all three	35	33.3
Yes, some	68	64.8
No	2	1.9
Generally, treat the child working in your home		
With care and respect, like a family member	51	48.6
As a worker, but with fairness	36	34.3

Variables	Frequency	Percentage
Strictly as an employee, with clear rules and boundaries	18	17.1
Ever used physical discipline to correct the child		
Yes	20	19
No	85	81
Ever raised your voice or scolded the child for mistakes or poor performance		
Yes	69	65.7
No	36	34.3
Any protective equipment or safety measures for tasks involving cleaning products or other hazardous materials provided to the child		
Yes	45	52
No	43	48
Any signs of illness or injury in the child since they began working for you		
Yes	7	6.6
No	80	76.2
Not Sure	18	17.2
Encourage the child to pursue education or learning opportunities		
Yes	90	85.7
No	15	14.3
Awareness of Pakistan's laws regarding child labor		
Yes	98	93.3
No	7	6.7

This breakdown offers insights into employer practices and attitudes regarding child labor, their compliance with safety measures, and their awareness of laws.

The households employing domestic workers (83.8%) had one child worker under 18. Another 15.2% employed 2–3 children, and 1% employed 4–5 children, often appointed via family referrals (61%). The high prevalence of single child laborers reflects a widespread reliance on child labor in domestic settings, often as a cost-effective alternative to adult workers. The smaller percentage employing multiple children may indicate exploitation in larger households or commercial domestic arrangements. This is consistent with Menon and van der Meulen Rodgers (2018) findings that informal labor arrangements tend to exploit children because they are willing to accept lower wages with long working hours. Most child workers (78.1%) reported working seven days a week. Another 20% reported working six days a week. Only 1.9% reported alternative schedules. The widespread prevalence of seven-day workweeks also points to the fact that there are no proper resting periods for child workers, leading to physical and mental exhaustion. Working hours are not uniform, pointing to the lack of enforcement in the informal sectors (ILO, 2022). These results are consistent with ILO (2019), emphasizing the lack of labor rights in the informal sectors as a key push factor for exploitation. Their parents also did not want to take them off due to financial crises and food security issues. They couldn't provide enough food for their children and tried to send them to work.

Nearly half (48.6%) of employers treated child workers as members of their families, whereas 34.3% of the employers' treated children as employees fairly. Approximately 17.1% treated children purely as an employee. The varied treatment reflects differences in employer attitudes and cultural norms. While some provide care and respect, others maintain rigid professional boundaries, potentially leading to exploitation or neglect. This pattern mirrors findings from Jorgensen et al. (2010), who noted that employer attitudes significantly impact child workers' well-being. Advocacy for humane treatment standards could improve working conditions for child laborers. The employers (33.3%) provided full support (food, clothes and money) while 65.7% offered partial support and 1% offered no additional assistance. The meager support reflects the transactional nature of child labor, in which children are mainly considered workers. The limited support does not cater to the child worker's overall needs, such as health, education, and emotional well-being. It resonates with UNICEF (2022), which pointed out that child laborers are often deprived of necessities despite their contributions.

About 19% of the employers admitted to using physical discipline, while 81% reported no such practices. The reported use of physical discipline indicates the vulnerability of child workers to abuse. While most employers avoided such practices, the 19% figure remains concerning and underscores the need for monitoring. These findings are supported by ILO (2019) categorized domestic labor as a sector where children experience high levels of physical and emotional abuse. On the other hand, 65.7% of the employers acknowledged yelling or scolding the child workers, and 34.3% did not. The high prevalence of verbal reprimands reflects the power dynamics inherent in child labor arrangements. While less harmful than physical discipline, frequent scolding can contribute to emotional distress. This aligns with Chowa et al. (2010), who emphasized the psychological toll of power imbalances on child workers. Training programs for employers on appropriate communication could reduce such practices. An overwhelming 93.3% of respondents responded that they are aware of Pakistan's child labor laws, leaving just 6.7% uninformed. As concluded in earlier findings, high awareness of child labor laws (93.3%) contrasts with their weak enforcement. This shows that though respondents may be informed, socio-economic pressures may limit compliance or lack legal repercussions. This discrepancy supports Latif et al. (2020), who emphasized that awareness alone does not guarantee compliance in contexts where socio-economic pressures dominate. Strengthening legal enforcement mechanisms and penalties for non-compliance is critical.

***Conclusion*:** Child labor in Faisalabad's domestic sector is a stark reality. Child, parent, and employer are important aspects of child labor being investigated in this study. The study of 105 respondents reveals a web of poverty, ignorance and exploitation. The child's own aspects showed that the

majority of the child laborers were female, 91.4 percent working in the domestic sector, are in the age of 9-15 years. There is an indication of gender disparity in domestic labor roles because male was only 8.6 percent. Most of the children had been found to attain primary education. The majority of the children were from families having larger household sizes. Furthermore, most of the children in domestic work were the eldest in birth order. Low literacy rate and unawareness of laws push them into work. The community didn't have proper knowledge regarding laws and order, but had a fear of complaint and was reluctant to provide data, with the thinking that someone would launch a complaint against them. But the dark side of society is to still taking profit from cheap labor. This isn't just data, its lives stunted by necessity. Progress demands breaking this cycle through education and enforcement, which is the key to success. Faisalabad's children deserve a future, not a burden.

Recommendations

- Free schooling and stipends can pull children from work. Literature shows that education cuts child labor. Fundraising for local schools is necessary in Faisalabad.
- Punjab's Law needs teeth and regular inspection, as per ILO (2022), can deter employers and train officials to act accordingly.
- Supporting families through cash transfer reduces poverty's push, thus expanding programs like BISP in Faisalabad.
- Raise awareness among parents and employers on rights through education by using media campaigns for impact.

The sample of 105 is small for Faisalabad's scale. Self-reported data may hide some truths. The study focused only on domestic work, missing other sectors. Future studies could track long-term effects. Comparing regions or testing interventions would deepen insights.

***Acknowledgement*:** The authors gratefully acknowledge the cooperation of the participating households in Punjab who shared their valuable time and experiences. We also thank the Institute of Agricultural and Resource Economics, University of Agriculture Faisalabad, for providing research guidance and support throughout this study.

***Credit author statement*:** Conceptualization: Saria Jabeen, Methodology: Saria Jabeen, Investigation: Asghar Ali, Data curation: Muhammad Khalid Bashir & Tahira Sadaf, Writing – review & editing: Asghar Ali, Supervision: Asghar Ali

***Conflict of interest*:** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest related to this research.

***Availability of data*:** The data sets are available from the coresponding author upon reasonable request.

***Consent to participate*:** All participants were informed about the objectives of the study and voluntarily agreed to take part.

***Informed to consent*:** Informed consent was obtained from all participants prior to data collection.

***Consent for publication*:** Participants were assured of confidentiality.

***SDGs addressed*:** No Poverty, Quality Education, Decent Work and Economic Growth, Reduced Inequalities

***Policy referred*:** The Employment of Children Act (1991); he Punjab Prohibition of Child Labour at Brick Kilns Act (2016); The Punjab Domestic Workers Act (2019)

***Publisher's note*:** All claims stated in this article are exclusively those of the authors and do not necessarily represent those of their affiliated organizations or those of the publisher, the editors, and the reviewers. Any product that may be evaluated/assessed in this article or claimed by its manufacturer is not guaranteed or endorsed by the publisher/editors.

REFERENCES

Al-Aly, Z., Davis, H., McCorkell, L., Soares, L., Wulf-Hanson, S., Iwasaki, A., & Topol, E. J. (2024). Long COVID science, research and policy. *Nature medicine*, *30*, 2148-2164.

Ali, S. W., & Gul, F. (2019). The Assessment of Governance on Child Labor in evidence of Pakistan. *iRASD Journal of Economics*, *1*, 59-67.

Abrahamyan, A., Soares, S., Fraga, S., & Barros, H. (2024). Prevalence of parental violent discipline toward children: Findings from a Portuguese population. *Journal of interpersonal violence*, *39*, 1881-1904.

Abdullah, A., Emery, C. R., Dwumah, P., & Jordan, L. P. (2023). Towards a normative change approach in child labour: A theoretical analysis and empirical exploration of the constituted and constitutive procedural social norms. *New Ideas in Psychology*, *70*, 101032.

Ahad, M. A., Parry, Y. K., & Willis, E. (2021). The prevalence and impact of maltreatment of child laborers in the context of four South Asian countries: A scoping review. *Child Abuse & Neglect*, *117*, 105052.

Ahmed, S., & Ray, R. (2014). Health consequences of child labour in Bangladesh. *Demographic research*, *30*, 111-150.

Akbar, S., & Hameed, A. (2019). Awareness of Teachers towards Child Rights Provision, Protection and Participation in framework of United Nation Child Rights Convention. *Pakistan Journal of Social Sciences (PJSS)*, *39*, p709.

Abdul Hai, A., Fatima, A., & Sadaqat, M. (2010). Socio-economic conditions of child labor: A case study for the fishing sector on Balochistan coast. *International Journal of Social Economics*, *37*(4), 316-338.

Ali, K. (2004). Simultaneous decision making of child schooling and child labour in Pakistani urban households. *The Lahore Journal of Economics*, *9*, 127-148.

Anderson, M., & Jiang, J. (2018). Teens, social media & technology 2018. *Pew research center*, *31*, 1673-1689.

Bhalotra, S. (2004). Parent altruism, cash transfers and child poverty. In *AEA/ASSA meetings*.

Bhalotra, S., & Heady, C. (2003). Child farm labor: The wealth paradox. *The World Bank Economic Review*, *17*, 197-227.

Bronfenbrenner, U. (1979). Contexts of child rearing: Problems and prospects. *American psychologist*, *34*, 844.

Benson, K. E., & Owens, L. Z. (2022). Unpacking the shortcomings of "college and career readiness" as an educative approach in urban schools as preparation for tomorrow's economy. *Education sciences*, *12*, 357.

BALZANO, R. M. (2022). Informants and Artifacts: Local Histories' Representations of Bondage and the Precarious States of Freedom in Northeastern Vermont. *Vermont History*, *90*, 1-23.

Basu, K., & Tzannatos, Z. (2003). The global child labor problem: what do we know and what can we do? *The world bank economic review*, *17*, 147-173.

Chatterjee, B., & Ray, R. (2019). *Economics of child labour*. Singapore: Springer Singapore.

Chatterjee, S. (2015). Making children matter in slum transformations: lessons from India's National Urban Renewal Mission. *Journal of Urban Design*, *20*, 479-506.

Chowa, G., Ansong, D., & Masa, R. (2010). Assets and child well-being in developing countries: A research review. *Children and Youth Services Review*, *32*, 1508-1519.

Chen, L., Chen, Y., Lin, J., Shen, Z., & Wang, Z. (2025). Commute time to school and child labour: evidence from China. *The Journal of Development Studies*, *61*, 581-597.

Du, F., Dong, X. Y., & Zhang, Y. (2019). Grandparent-provided childcare and labor force participation of mothers with preschool children in urban China. *China Population and Development Studies*, *2*, 347-368.

Das, S., & Mukherjee, D. (2011). Measuring deprivation due to child work and child labour: A study for Indian children. *Child Indicators Research*, *4*(3), 453-466.

Dwibedi, J., & Chaudhuri, S. (2010). Child labour in the presence of agricultural dualism: possible cures.

Edmonds, E. V. (2005). Does child labor decline with improving economic status?. *Journal of human resources*, *40*, 77-99.

Edmonds, E. V., & Pavcnik, N. (2005). Child labor in the global economy. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, *19*, 199-220.

Emerson, P. M., & Souza, A. P. (2008). Birth order, child labor, and school attendance in Brazil. *World Development*, *36*, 1647-1664.

Gul, H., Ali, S., Zahin, F. Y., & Shuja, B. (2022). Exploitation of Bonded Child Labor by Brick Kilns Industrialist in Peshawar, Pakistan.

Garcia, R. (2015). *Bridging the English learner achievement gap: Essential lessons for school leaders*. Teachers College Press.

Ghayur, S. (1996). Labour market issues in Pakistan: unemployment, working conditions, and child labour. *The Pakistan Development Review*, *35*, 789-803.

Hafeez, A., & Hussain, S. (2019). An empirical analysis of child labor: Evidence from Pakistan. *Pakistan Economic Review*, *2*, 48-64.

Hou, X. (2010). Wealth: Crucial but not sufficient–evidence from pakistan on economic growth, child labour and schooling. *The Journal of Development Studies*, *46*, 439-465.

Huisman, J., & Smits, J. (2015). Keeping children in school: Effects of household and context characteristics on school dropout in 363 districts of 30 developing countries. *Sage Open*, *5*, 2158244015609666.

Hussain, A. (1997). Child workers in hazardous industries in Pakistan.

International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour. (2013). *World Report on Child Labour*. International Labour Office.

International Labor Organization, (2019). About the International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC). http://www.ilo.org/ipec/programme/lang--en/index.htm (ac cessed on 01/Jun/2019).

ILO & UNICEF, (2021). Child labour: Global estimates 2020, trends and the road forward

ILO. (2022). Combating child labour and exploitation. In International Labour Organization. https://www.ilo.org/combating-child-labour-2022.

Iram, U., & Fatima, A. (2008). International trade, foreign direct investment and the phenomenon of child labor: The case of Pakistan. *International Journal of Social Economics*, *35*, 809-822.

Islam, M. S., Ahmed, M. K., Habibullah-Al-Mamun, M., Islam, K. N., Ibrahim, M., & Masunaga, S. (2014). Arsenic and lead in foods: a potential threat to human health in Bangladesh. *Food Additives & Contaminants: Part A*, *31*, 1982-1992.

Islam, M. (2017). Child Labor and Child Rights:'Aparajeyo-Bagladesh'a Role Model. *Available at SSRN 3061365*.

Junker, N. M., Baumeister, R. F., Straub, K., & Greenhaus, J. H. (2021). When forgetting what happened at work matters: The role of affective rumination, problem-solving pondering, and self-control in work–family

conflict and enrichment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *106*, 1750.

Jaffar, S. M. (2021). Association between Knowledge, Attitude, and Intention to Report Child Abuse among Early Childcare Providers in Kelantan and Cross-cultural Adaptation of its Instrument [dissertation]. *Kota Bharu (MAL): Universiti Sains Malaysia*.

Jørgensen, A., Lai, L. C., & Hauschild, M. Z. (2010). Assessing the validity of impact pathways for child labour and well-being in social life cycle assessment. *The International Journal of Life Cycle Assessment*, *15*, 5-16.

Khakshour, A., Ajilian Abbasi, M., Sayedi, S. J., Saeidi, M., & Khodaee, G. H. (2015). Child labor facts in the worldwide: A review article. *International Journal of Pediatrics*, *3*, 467-473.

Khan, K. K., & Shahzadi, A. (2021). Socio-economic determinants & dynamics of debt bondage: a descriptive analysis of brick kiln workers in Punjab, Pakistan. *Technium*, *3*, 64-86.

Khule, B., & Jena, P. (2021). Critical views on the issues, rights and legislation of women in india and across the globe. *Issue 2 Int'l JL Mgmt. & Human.*, *4*, 1831.

Karim, M. S. (2009). Violation of labour rights in the ship-breaking yards of Bangladesh: legal norms and reality. *International Journal of Comparative Labour Law and Industrial Relations*, *25*, 379-394.

Khan, R. E. A. (2003). Children in different activities: child schooling and child labour. *The Pakistan development review*, *42*, 137-160.

Kim, J., Olsen, W., & Wiśniowski, A. (2020). A Bayesian estimation of child labour in India. *Child Indicators Research*, *13*, 1975-2001.

Latif, A., Ali, S., & Zafar, Z. (2018). Extent and magnitude of child labor in south asia: analyzing the worst forms of child labor in Pakistan. *Journal of Indian Studies*, *4*, 171-187.

Latif, A., Ali, S., Awan, A., & Kataria, J. R. (2020). Socio-economic and political determinants of child labor at brick kilns: A case study of district Jhang. *South Asian Studies*, *31*, 161-174.

LeBaron, G. (2014). Reconceptualizing debt bondage: Debt as a class-based form of labor discipline. *Critical Sociology*, *40*, 763-780.

Li, Y., Zhang, H., Padua, S., Zhou, X., Ma, X., & Li, X. (2024). Strategies for Applying Commercial AI in Labor Education during the Transition from Kindergarten to Primary School. In *SHS Web of Conferences* (Vol. 187, p. 03012). EDP Sciences.

Menon, N., & van der Meulen Rodgers, Y. (2018). Child labor and the minimum wage: Evidence from India. *Journal of Comparative Economics*, *46*, 480-494.

Mahmod, N. A. K. N., Salleh, M. C. M., Muhammad, A. A., & Mohd, A. (2016). A study on child labour as a form of child abuse in Malaysia. *International Journal of Social Science and Humanity*, *6*, 525.

Mahmood, M., Javaid, T., Baig, A., & Khan, S. R. (1994). Why children do not go to school in pakistan-some estimates and a theoretical framework [with Comments]. *The Pakistan Development Review*, *33*, 1231-1248.

Murray, D. F., Theminimulle, S., & Sadat, F. A. (2019). Study on modern slavery in Bangladesh. *Development Alternatives Incorporated (DAI)*.

Majumdar, A., Saraf, S. K., Sahu, C., Verma, K., & Vishwakarma, P. (2025). Current perspectives on malnutrition and immunomodulators bridging nutritional deficiencies and immune health. *Future Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences*, *11*, 50.

Norpoth, J., Groß, L., & Aktar, R. (2014). *Child labour in Bangladesh-an analysis of gaps and weaknesses of the existing legal framework* (No. 204). IEE working papers.

Nesi, G., Nogler, L., & Pertile, M. (2016). *Child labour in a globalized world: a legal analysis of ILO action*. Routledge.

Pinilla-Roncancio, M., & Silva, R. (2018). Children in Angola: Poverty, deprivation and child labour. *Child Indicators Research*, *11*, 981-1005.

Pinzón-Rondón, Á. M., Cifuentes, L. B., Zuluaga, C., Botero, J. C., & Pinzon-Caicedo, M. (2018). Wealth, social protection programs, and child labor in colombia: a cross-sectional study. *International Journal of Health Services*, *48*, 535-548.

Punaks, M., & Lama, S. (2021). Orphanage trafficking and child protection in emergencies in Nepal: A comparative analysis of the 2015 earthquake and the 2020 COVID-19 pandemic. *Institutionalised Children Explorations and Beyond*, *8*, 26-37.

Qadoos, H. B., Javid, A. Y., & Armughan, F. (2023). Investigating Financial Inclusion and Saving behavior: Case of BISP Beneficiaries.

Quattri, M., & Watkins, K. (2019). Child labour and education–A survey of slum settlements in Dhaka (Bangladesh). *World Development Perspectives*, *13*, 50-66.

Ray, R. (2000). Child labor, child schooling, and their interaction with adult labor: Empirical evidence for Peru and Pakistan. *The World Bank Economic Review*, *14*, 347-367.

Ryder, G. (2019). Decent work and the 2030 Agenda for sustainable development. *International Labour Organization: Geneva, Switzerland*.

Ranjan, P. (2001). Credit constraints and the phenomenon of child labor. *Journal of development economics*, *64*, 81-102.

Reese, L., Balzano, S., Gallimore, R., & Goldenberg, C. (2022). The concept of educación: Latino family values

and American schooling. In *The new immigrants and American schools* (pp. 305-328). Routledge.

Rossi, A. (2006). UNICEF Guidelines on the Protection of Child Victims of Trafficking.

Santana, V. S., Kiss, L., & Andermann, A. (2019). The scientific knowledge on child labor in Latin America. *Cadernos de Saúde Pública*, *35*, e00105119.

Smith, J. P. (1999). Healthy bodies and thick wallets: the dual relation between health and economic status. *Journal of Economic perspectives*, *13*, 145-166.

Srivastava, C. D. S. (2014). Child labor: status & its relationship with the unorganized sector in Uttar Pradesh. *NEW MAN*, 57.

Sajid, G. M., & Ahmad, N. (2018). Exploring the determinants of child labor in districts Quetta and Pishin of Balochistan. *Artech Journal of Art and Social Sciences (AJASS)*, *1*, 9-17.

Song, J., Wang, Y., & Wang, J. (2022). The impact of SO2 emissions trading scheme on firm's environmental performance: a channel from robot application. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, *19*, 16471.

Sharma, K. (2016). Trade, Growth and Child Labour Practices in South Asia. In *Child Labour in South Asia* (pp. 65-77). Routledge.

Shahid, I. (2023). *Analysis of the decreasing food security situation and impact on household in Pakistan* (Doctoral dissertation, Universidade de São Paulo).

Sanchez, O. D. R., Tanaka Zambrano, E., Dantas-Silva, A., Bonás, M. K., Grieger, I., Machado, H. C., & Surita, F. G. (2023). Domestic violence: A cross-sectional study among pregnant and postpartum women. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, *79*, 1525-1539.

Shahen, A., & Alam, M. B. (2020). Child labor and poverty: A study on Rajshahi Metropolitan Area, Bangladesh. *IOSR Journal Of Humanities And Social Science*, *25*, 42-55.

Tanaka, H., & Arakida, M. (2024). The development and psychometric testing of the scale of cultural sensitivity of health care professionals in Japan. *Journal of Transcultural Nursing*, *35*, 161-176.

Tang, C., Zhao, L., & Zhao, Z. (2020). Does free education help combat child labor? The effect of a free compulsory education reform in rural China. *Journal of Population Economics*, *33*, 601-631.

Tuttle, C. (2021). *Hard at work in factories and mines: the economics of child labor during the British industrial revolution*. Routledge.

Toor, I. A. (2005). Child Labor's Link with Literacy and Poverty in Pakistan.

Türkelli, G. E. (2020). *Children's Rights and Business: Governing Obligations and Responsibility*. Cambridge University Press.

Thévenon, O., & Edmonds, E. (2019). Child labour: Causes, consequences and policies to tackle it. *OECD Social, Employment, and Migration Working Papers*, *235*, 4-82.

UNICEF. (2021). Protecting child rights in a time of crises. UNICEF Annual Report 2021. *Unicef. https://reliefweb. int/report/world/unicef-annual-report-2021-protecting-child-rights-time-crises-enar*.

UNICEF. 2022. Eliminating child labour: A global commitment. In UNICEF. https://www. unicef.org/reducing-child-labour-2022

UNICEF. 2023. Protecting children in emergencies. In UNICEF. https://www.unicef. org/protecting-children-in-emergencies

VISHWAKARMA, S. (2021). *" Juvenile Justice" A Critical Analysis* (Doctoral dissertation).

Van Der Hof, S., Lievens, E., Milkaite, I., Verdoodt, V., Hannema, T., & Liefaard, T. (2020). The child's right to protection against economic exploitation in the digital world. *The International Journal of Children's Rights*, *28*, 833-859.

Warren, R. C. (2011). Are we making progress in international business ethics?. *Humanomics*, *27*, 212-224.

Webbink, E., Smits, J., & de Jong, E. (2013). Household and context determinants of child labor in 221 districts of 18 developing countries. *Social indicators research*, *110*, 819-836.

Yan, X., Li, R., Wang, X., Xu, X., Li, M., Zhang, C., ... & Li, Y. (2024). Trends in nonsugar sweetener use among United States adults by chronic diseases presence: 1999 to March 2020. *The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, *120*, 1175-1184.

Zaman, S., Matin, S., & Kibria, A. M. B. G. (2014). A study on present scenario of child labour in Bangladesh. *IOSR Journal of Business and Management*, *16*, 25-36.

Zafar, Z., Sarwar, I., & Haider, S. I. (2016). Socio-economic and political causes of child labor: the case of Pakistan. *Global Political Review*, *1*, 32-43.

Zhou, I. (2020). *Digital labour platforms and labour protection in China* (No. 11). ILO Working Paper.

Zdunnek, G., Dinkelaker, D., Kalla, B., Matthias, G., Szrama, R., & Wenz, K. (2008). *Child labour and children's economic activities in agriculture in Ghana*. Albrecht Daniel Thaer - Institut für Agrar-und Gartenbauwissenschaften.